



Early Journal Content on JSTOR, Free to Anyone in the World

This article is one of nearly 500,000 scholarly works digitized and made freely available to everyone in the world by JSTOR.

Known as the Early Journal Content, this set of works include research articles, news, letters, and other writings published in more than 200 of the oldest leading academic journals. The works date from the mid-seventeenth to the early twentieth centuries.

We encourage people to read and share the Early Journal Content openly and to tell others that this resource exists. People may post this content online or redistribute in any way for non-commercial purposes.

Read more about Early Journal Content at <http://about.jstor.org/participate-jstor/individuals/early-journal-content>.

JSTOR is a digital library of academic journals, books, and primary source objects. JSTOR helps people discover, use, and build upon a wide range of content through a powerful research and teaching platform, and preserves this content for future generations. JSTOR is part of ITHAKA, a not-for-profit organization that also includes Ithaka S+R and Portico. For more information about JSTOR, please contact support@jstor.org.

Creator calling to each atom and to each cell of protoplasm to fall into its ordained position, each, as it were, a musical note in the harmonious symphony which we call the universe.

At the first meeting, in 1831, Prof. James D. Forbes was requested to draw up a report on the State of Meteorological Science, on the ground that this science is more in want than any other of that systematic direction which it is one great object of the Association to give. Prof. Forbes made his first report in 1832, and a subsequent report in 1840. The systematic records now kept in various parts of the world of barometric pressure, of solar heat, of the temperature and physical conditions of the atmosphere at various altitudes, of the heat of the ground at various depths, of the rainfall, of the prevalence of winds, and the gradual elucidation not only of the laws which regulate the movements of cyclones and storms, but of the influences which are exercised by the sun and by electricity and magnetism, not only upon atmospheric conditions, but upon health and vitality, are gradually approximating meteorology to the position of an exact science.

England took the lead in rainfall observations. Mr. G. J. Symons organized the British Rainfall System in 1860 with 178 observers, a system which until 1876 received the help of the British Association. Now Mr. Symons himself conducts it, assisted by more than 3000 observers, and these volunteers not only make the observations, but defray the expense of their reduction and publication. In foreign countries this work is done by government officers at the public cost. At the present time a very large number of rain gauges are in daily use throughout the world. The British Islands have more than 3000, and India and the United States have nearly as many; France and Germany are not far behind; Australia probably has more—in-

deed, one colony alone, New South Wales, has more than 1100.

The storm warnings now issued under the excellent systematic organization of the Meteorological Committee may be said to have had their origin in the terrible storm which broke over the Black Sea during the Crimean War, on November 27, 1855. Leverrier traced the progress of that storm, and seeing how its path could have been reported in advance by the electric telegraph, he proposed to establish observing stations which should report to the coasts the probability of the occurrence of a storm. Leverrier communicated with Airy, and the government authorized Admiral Fitz Roy to make tentative arrangements in this country. The idea was also adopted on the continent, and now there are few civilized countries north or south of the equator without a system of storm warning.*

(*To be concluded.*)

ELECTRIFICATION AND DISELECTRIFICATION OF AIR AND OTHER GASES.†

§ 1. EXPERIMENTS were made for the purpose of finding an approximation to the amount of electrification communicated to air by one or more electrified needle points. The apparatus consisted of a metallic can 48 cms. high and 21 cms. in diameter, supported by paraffine blocks, and connected to one pair of quadrants of a quadrant electrometer. It had a hole at the top to admit the electrifying wire, which was 5.31 metres long, hanging vertically within a

* It has often been supposed that Leverrier was also the first to issue a daily weather map, but that was not the case, for in the Great Exhibition of 1851 the Electric Telegraph Company sold daily weather maps, copies of which are still in existence, and the data for them were, it is believed, obtained by Mr. James Glaisher, F. R. S., at that time Superintendent of the Meteorological Department at Greenwich.

† Abstract of a paper by Lord Kelvin, Magnus Maclean and Alexander Galt, read before the British Association for the Advancement of Science.

metallic guard tube. This guard tube was always metallically connected to the other pair of quadrants of the electrometer and to its case, and to a metallic screen surrounding it. This prevented any external influences from sensibly affecting the electrometer, such as the working of the electric machine which stood on a shelf 5 metres above it.

some minutes, so as to electrify the air in the can. As soon as the machine is stopped the electrifying wire is lifted clear out of the can. The can and the quadrants in metallic connection with it are disconnected from the case of the electrometer, and the electrified air is very rapidly drawn away from the can by a blowpipe bellows arranged to suck. This releases the opposite

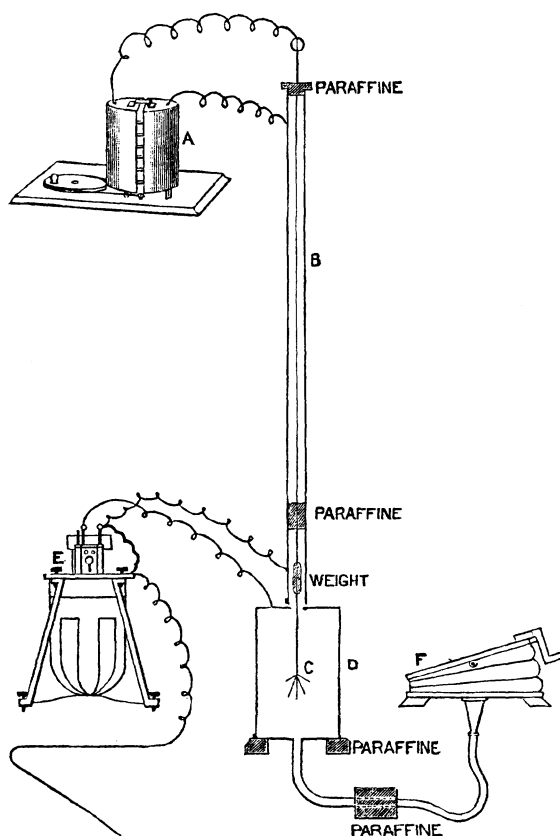


FIG. 1.—Connected with guard screen (not shown in diagram).

§ 2. The experiment is conducted as follows: One terminal of an electric machine is connected with the guard tube and the other with the electrifying wire, which is let down so that the needle is in the centre of the can. The can is temporarily connected to the case of the electrometer. The electric machine is then worked for

kind of electricity from the inside of the can, and allows it to place itself in equilibrium on the outside of the can and on the insulated quadrants of the electrometer in metallic connection with it.

§ 3. We tried different lengths of time of electrification and different numbers of needles and tinsel, but we found that one nee-

dle and four minutes of electrification gave nearly maximum effect. The greatest deflection observed was 936 scale divisions. To find, from this reading, the electric density of the air in the can, we took a metallic disk, of 2 cms. radius, attached to a long varnished glass rod, and placed it at a distance of 1.45 cm. from another and larger metallic disk. This small air condenser was charged from the electric light conductors in the laboratory to a difference of potential amounting to 100 volts. The insulated disk thus charged was removed and laid upon the roof of the large insulated can. This addition to the metal in connection with it does not sensibly influence its electrostatic capacity. The deflection observed was 122 scale divisions. The capacity of the condenser is approximately

$$\frac{\pi \times 2^2}{4\pi \times 1.45} = \frac{1}{1.45}.$$

The quantity of electricity with which it was charged was

$$\frac{1}{1.45} \times \frac{100}{300} = \frac{1}{4.35}$$

electrostatic unit. Hence, the quantity to give 936 scale divisions was

$$\frac{1}{4.35} \times \frac{936}{122} = 1.7637.$$

The bellows was worked vigorously for two and a-half minutes, and in that time all the electrified air would be exhausted. The capacity of the can was 16,632 cubic centimetres, which gives, for the quantity of electricity per cubic centimetre,

$$\frac{1.7637}{16,632} = 1.06 \times 10^{-4}.$$

The electrification of the air in this case was positive; it was about as great as the greatest we got, whether positive or negative, in common air when we electrified it by discharge from needle points. This is about four times the electric density which

we roughly estimated as about the greatest given to the air in the inside of a large metal vat, electrified by a needle point and then left to itself, and tested by the potential of a water dropper with its nozzle in the centre of the vat, in experiments made two years ago and described in a communication to the Royal Society of date May, 1894.*

§ 4. In subsequent experiments, electrifying common air in a large gasholder over water by an insulated gas flame burning within it with a wire in the interior of the flame kept electrified by an electric machine to about 6,000 volts, whether positively or negatively, we found as much as 1.5×10^{-4} for the electric density of the air. Electrifying carbonic acid in the same gasholder, *whether positively or negatively*, by needle points, we obtained an electric density of 2.2×10^{-4} .

§ 5. We found about the same electric density (2.2×10^{-4}) of *negative* electricity in carbonic acid gas drawn from an iron cylinder lying horizontally, and allowed to pass by a U-tube into the gasholder without bubbling through the water. This electrification was due probably not to carbonic acid gas rushing through the stopcock of the cylinder, but to bubbling from the liquid carbonic in its interior, or to the formation of carbonic acid snow in the passages and its subsequent evaporation. When carbonic acid gas was drawn slowly from the liquid carbonic acid in the iron cylinder placed upright, and allowed to pass, without bubbling, through the U-tube into the gasholder over water, no electrification was found in the gas unless electricity was communicated to it from needle points.

§ 6. The electrifications of air and carbonic acid described in Sections 4 and 5 were tested, and their electric densities measured by drawing by an air pump a

* 'On the Electrification of Air,' by Lord Kelvin and Magnus Maclean.

measured quantity of the gas* from the gasholder through an India-rubber tube to a receiver of known efficiency and of known capacity in connection with the electrometer. We have not yet measured how much electricity was lost in the passage through the India-rubber tube. It was not probably nothing; and the electric density of the gas before leaving the gasholder was no doubt greater, though perhaps not much greater, than what it had when it reached the electric receiver.

§ 7. The efficiency of the electric receivers used was approximately determined by putting two of them in series, with a paraffine tunnel between them, and measuring by

in each case. This assumption was approximately justified by the results.

§ 8. Thus we found for the efficiencies of two different receivers respectively 0·77 and 0·31 with air electrified positively or negatively by needle points; and 0·82 and 0·42 with carbonic acid gas electrified negatively by being drawn from an iron cylinder placed on its side. Each of these receivers consisted of block tin pipe, 4 cms. long and 1 cm. diameter, with 5 plugs of cotton wool kept in position by six discs of fine wire gauze. The great difference in their efficiency was no doubt due to the quantities of cotton wool being different, or differently compressed in the two.

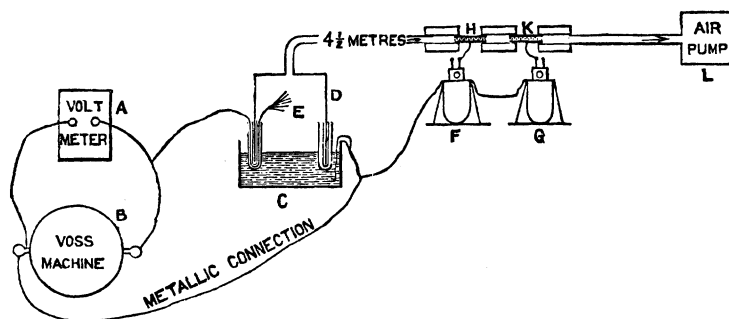


FIG. 2.

means of two quadrant electrometers the quantity of electricity which each took from a measured quantity of air drawn through them. By performing this experiment several times, with the order of the two receivers alternately reversed, we had data for calculating the proportion of the electricity taken by each receiver from the air entering it, on the assumption that the proportion taken by each receiver was the same

* The gasholder was 38 cms. high and 81 cms. in circumference. Ten strokes of the pump raised the water inside to a height of 8·1 cms., so that the volume of air drawn through the receivers in the experiments was 428 cubic centimetres per stroke of the pump. This agrees with the measured effective volume of the two cylinders of the pump.

§ 9. We have commenced and we hope to continue an investigation of the efficiency of electric receivers of various kinds, such as block tin, brass and platinum tubes from 2 to 4 cms. long, and from 1 mm. to 1 cm. internal diameter, all of smooth bore and without any cotton wool or wire gauze filters in them; also a polished metal solid, insulated within a paraffine tunnel. This investigation, made with various quantities of air drawn through per second, has already given us some interesting and surprising results, which we hope to describe after we have learned more by farther experimenting.

§ 10. In addition to our experiments on

electric filters we have made many other experiments to find other means for the dis-electrification of air. It might be supposed that drawing air in bubbles through water should be very effective for this purpose, but we find that this is far from being the case. We had previously found that non-electrified air drawn in bubbles through pure water becomes negatively electrified, and through salt water positively. We now find that positively electrified air drawn through pure water, and negatively electrified air through salt water, has its electrification diminished but not annulled, if the primitive electrification is sufficiently strong. Negatively electrified air drawn in bubbles through pure water, or positively electrified air drawn through salt water, has its electrification augmented.

§ 11. To test the effects of heat we drew air through combustion tubes of German glass about 180 cms. long, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ or $1\frac{1}{2}$ cms. bore, the heat being applied externally to about 120 cms. of the length. We found that, when the temperature was raised to nearly a dull red heat, air, whether positively or negatively electrified, lost little or nothing of its electrification by being drawn through the tube. When the temperature was raised to a dull red heat, and to a bright red, high enough to soften the glass, losses up to as much as four-fifths of the whole electrification were sometimes observed, but never complete diselectrification. The results, however, were very irregular. Non-electrified air never became sensibly electrified by being drawn through the hot glass tubes in our experiments, but it gained strong positive electrification when pieces of copper foil, and negative electrification when pieces of carbon, were placed in the tube, and when the temperature was sufficient to powerfully oxidize the copper or to burn away the charcoal.

§ 12. Through the kindness of Mr. E.

Matthey, we have been able to experiment with a platinum tube 1 metre long and 1 millimetre bore. It was heated either by a gas flame or an electric current. When the tube was cold, and non-electrified air drawn through it, we found no signs of electrification by our receiver and electrometer. But when the tube was made red or white hot, either by gas burners applied externally or by an electric current through the metal of the tube, the previously non-electrified air drawn through it was found to be electrified strongly positive. To get complete command of the temperature we passed a measured electric current through 20 centimetres of the platinum tube. On increasing the current till the tube began to be at a scarcely visible dull red heat we found but little electrification of the air. When the tube was a little warmer, so as to be quite visibly red hot, large electrification became manifest. Thus 60 strokes of the air pump gave 45 scale divisions on the electrometer when the tube was dull red, and 395 scale divisions (7 volts) when it was a bright red (produced by a current of 36 ampères). With stronger currents, raising the tube to white-hot temperature, the electrification seemed to be considerably less.

SCIENCE OR POETRY.

THE hardest of intellectual virtues is philosophic doubt, and the mental vice to which we are most prone is our tendency to assume that lack of evidence for an opinion is a reason for believing something else.

This tendency has value in practical matters which call for action, but the man of science need neither starve nor choose, and suspended judgment is the greatest triumph of intellectual discipline, although vacillation brands the man of affairs with weakness.

Anything which is conceivable may be